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# SECONDARY EDUCATION

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## SECONDARY EDUCATION.

By THOMAS H. BRIGGS,

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### CHARACTER OF SCHOOL REPORTS.

A study of a large number of school reports, from both States and cities, reveals an astonishing variety in the size, the audience addressed, the content, and the use made of them. The size varies from pamphlets of a few pages to volumes of several hundred. In a number of instances a long report is published in several small sections, thus effecting economy and also insuring attention that might be repelled by a formidable volume. The audience is the board of education, the teachers, superintendents of other States or cities, the public at large, or nobody in particular. It would seem that in every case the persons to whom the report is addressed would be known, first of all, for their interests or needs should determine the contents of the report. It is difficult to see why any school reports should contain portraits of the members of the board of education, programs of the high-school graduating exercises, expressions of acrimony between school officers, unsubstantiated statements of "a most successful year," lengthy minutes that properly are recorded in the secretary's book, or complete unclassified details of expenditures. It is doubtful if most of the tediously gathered statistics can be justified when they occupy three-fourths of a report and are accompanied by no interpreting text and no indications that they have been or will be used.

When a report is definitely addressed to the public, it very properly contains general statements of progress, explanations of new features in the schools—such as supervised study and the longer school day or of extra-curricular activities—and arguments concerning the value of secondary or higher education. Supt. Stark, of Hackensack, N. J., in addressing the public, prefaces his detailed

report by a summary of his recommendations of the preceding year, a list of the accomplishments during the year, and recommendations of what should be done in the future. A report addressed to the public may properly also present data concerning the high-school teachers—their preparation, experience, etc.—facts showing the holding power of the school, the percentage of failures, the size of classes, the cost of each subject per pupil, and the like, provided the tabulations are interpreted and an appeal is made that a proposed program of improvement be supported. It is certainly not economical to include in one volume for general circulation different kinds of material, each being of interest to only one of several audiences addressed. Of the State publications concerning high schools, it is not invidious to mention as peculiarly helpful for various reasons those from California, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, South Carolina, and Wisconsin.

#### GROWTH OF HIGH SCHOOLS.

The State reports for the biennium contain less about the increase in the number of high schools than they have done for a number of years past. Especially in the older States and in the younger ones that have done most by way of educational advance there are justifiable expressions of pride that opportunities for secondary education are in the reach of the greatest majority of youth. The growth that is more emphasized is in the number of pupils and in their persistence in school. There are a number of expressions of opinion that no high schools should be established or maintained at the expense of the elementary grades and that in the secondary schools already established effort should be made to secure respectable work of higher quality. Typical of these expressions may be quoted the following passage from the fourteenth biennial report of the State superintendent of public instruction of Montana:

- While everything possible has been done and is being done to encourage high-school work in all schools equipped to do the work, and while the principals of the larger high schools have been most generous in their willingness to cooperate with these schools that are taking care of the boys and girls at home, it seems that a note of warning must be sounded or some districts in their zeal for high-school work will do their schools more harm than good.

In the first place, many schools have asked teachers not well qualified to teach the ninth grade subjects, which is an unwise thing, for no instruction is often better than the wrong kind of instruction. Other schools hiring but one or two teachers have endeavored to start high-school classes. The best that can be said of the work carried on under these conditions is that it overworks the teachers, robs the boys and girls in the elementary grades at the very time when they are forming their like or dislike for the public school, and cheats those who think they are getting high-school work when they are not, and who believe that they are saving time when they are actually losing it. Still other schools with the number of teachers necessary to start high-school work fall short by trying to care for too many courses or too many

studies in one course, forgetting that thorough work in a few branches is better than slipshod efforts in many.

In planning for the best interests of the school, it must be remembered that a first-class elementary school means a good deal more to any community than a poor high school, and no attempt should be made to finance high-school work until grounds, buildings, and equipment are what they ought to be, and something in the way of music, drawing, industrial work, domestic science, and community activities have been provided for the grades.

The valuation of the school district should also be considered, and until this is what it should be, the thought of the first-class graded school with suitable equipment and a permanent and fully accredited high-school course can not be fully considered, for in the long run, carrying on a school of that kind is not a question of enthusiasm, of sentiment, or of need, but one of dollars and cents with which equipment can be provided and teachers paid.

When the proper valuation is in sight, whether it has been secured by consolidation or otherwise, the first year of the course best adapted to the needs of the community in which the school is located should be taken up and strictly adhered to until sufficient teaching force can be employed to carry on additional work.

The State inspector of high schools for South Carolina is even more emphatic and pointed in his remarks:

One of the first weaknesses a stranger would detect in the high-school system in South Carolina would be our small number of four-year schools in places amply able to support them, and the attempt of a few small places to support four-year schools with too few pupils and too little money. The number of the latter class is small, but of the former class there are too many. To maintain a four-year school there are three things necessary: Enough pupils to justify its existence, enough money to employ the teachers and to equip the school, and a community that appreciates such a school.

From the point of view of attendance it seems reasonable to hold that any three-year school with as many as 75 pupils is well able to maintain a fourth-year class. Seventeen of our schools last year had enrolled 1,816 high-school pupils going out with a three-year high-school education. Admittedly, those going to college are not prepared as they should be, and certainly those leaving school are entering life with meager equipment.

From the point of view of expense a few words ought to suffice. In September, 1916, these 17 schools sent from their third-year classes 194 pupils to college one year behind the preparation required by high-grade colleges. In other words, these pupils went to college to get their fourth-year high-school training. At the conservative estimate of \$250 each, these pupils cost their parents \$48,000 for the privilege of sending their children away from home to get what they should have had at home. Worse still, it cost more to keep these 194 pupils at college a year than the 17 schools paid for teaching the entire high-school enrollment of 1,816. All this takes no account of the large number of boys and girls whose education closed with the third year of the high school. Why will people persist in such waste and folly? Once we heard that ancient alluring phrase about "saving a year at college," but surely thinking people are no longer caught with such bait.

The people of this State have had so little practical experience with well-equipped four-year high schools that they do not appreciate their value. For long years we have known nothing higher than a three-year high school resting upon a seven-year elementary school, and the people have come to look upon such a school as ideal. In fact, one occasionally hears the argument that such a school is enough for any people. Such advice reminds one of Aesop's unfortunate tailless fox. If the study of pedagogy has taught us anything, it has convinced us that we can not force the



growth of the human plant. It requires time for the human plant to grow and mature. When we consider the comparatively small number of men and women with a college education, and the even smaller number with a four-year high-school education, we begin to understand the limitations of our people intellectually, industrially, and economically. South Carolina's having more college graduates than four-year high-school graduates furnishes amusement for everybody but us. We have not yet seen the amusing side of the situation.

In another part of his report Inspector Hand explains how the unfortunate condition came to exist in South Carolina, and recounts the changes in the law made in an attempt to remedy earlier mistakes. In 1907 South Carolina passed a law appropriating \$50,000 to develop high schools.

Although the terms upon which State aid was offered to the individual schools were liberal, of the \$50,000 appropriated for the scholastic year 1907-8, only \$27,960 was used. Only 56 schools could be induced to take advantage of the new law. In the law was a clause granting to the trustees of a high school accepting State aid the power to levy a local high-school tax not to exceed 2 mills on all the taxable property of the district. In most instances local boards had to promise not to levy this tax before the people would vote for the establishment of a high school. It is interesting to note how many districts then reluctant to empower their trustees to levy a 2-mill tax have since voted 4, 6, 8, and even 10 mills for school support. In 1908-9 only \$44,295 of the State appropriation was used.

Apprehensive lest the towns and the cities might get an undue proportion, if any part of the State appropriation, the general assembly put into the first law an unfortunate clause forbidding the use of any of the appropriation in a school district containing an incorporated place of over 1,000 population. Small places with few pupils and small revenue were the only places encouraged by the law. The consequences might have been foreseen. These small places were prompted to undertake the impossible, to establish high schools without resources to maintain them. In order to put 2 teachers and 25 pupils, the minimum requirements, into the high schools, numbers of places crippled their elementary departments for years. To remedy this defect the law was amended so as to permit a high school of 1 teacher and 15 pupils to share in the State appropriation. Again the consequences ought to have been foreseen. Every school of 3 teachers that could possibly find 15 pupils for the high-school grades wished to become a high school. Not infrequently a high-school teacher would be found with 15 pupils, often fewer, while the 2 teachers in the lower grades would have from 30 to 50 pupils each, occasionally more.

Between 1907 and 1917 fifty-eight places undertook to maintain high schools, but gave them up.

At the beginning of the year 1916-17 all the one-teacher high schools were put into the rural graded school class, and the appropriation for that class of schools was increased. So far as making any contribution to a permanent system of high schools, the State's money spent on these one-teacher schools was a total loss. It was an expensive experiment financially, and one that had a deadening effect far worse than the mere financial waste. The one-teacher high schools put an immediate check upon all efforts at building up high-grade high schools at central points to serve small surrounding schools. The one-teacher high schools undertook the work of three and four teacher high schools, and parents seemed satisfied with the attempt.

Meantime the general assembly had, after a hard struggle, amended the law by increasing the maximum population limit from 1,000 to 2,500. With the census of 1910 twenty-five of the largest high schools in the State were debarred from any participation in the State high-school fund, although any high school receiving any of this

fund had to give free tuition to any high-school pupil from that county. Year after year the lawmakers were urged to repeal this clause, but without success until 1916, when an entirely new law was substituted. The new law is much simpler than the old one. The population limit is entirely removed, a high school must have at least 2 teachers and 25 high-school pupils, the district must levy at least 4 mills local school tax for running expenses, any high-school pupil can without tuition attend any State-aided high school in his own county or an adjoining county, and the State appropriation was increased to \$80,000 annually. The immediate effects of the enactment of the new law will be referred to in another place in this report.

State Inspector Walker, of North Carolina, recognizing the weakness in his State of the small, weak high schools, proposes a policy that should control them:

There is needed a comprehensive policy, a plan backed by law, that will recognize in some way all worthy high schools operated at public expense, city and rural, and that will make possible the development of good high schools where high schools are needed and prevent the multiplication of weak high schools where high schools are not needed. It is impossible to build up an efficient high school in every cross-roads community. It becomes necessary to concentrate our efforts in each county at a few centers where there is a quickened school interest, intelligence, and available means, all of which are necessary to the development of schools of the right kind. It might be advisable to extend State aid to all well-organized and well-managed four-year high schools of the cities and towns that admit pupils to the high-school grades from the country districts, State aid, of course, to be given under the requirements of the public high-school law and primarily on the basis of attendance from outside the local district. This matter, I think, is worthy of serious consideration.

The State appropriation should, in a word, be used for four important purposes: (1) To stimulate counties and communities to initiate new and necessary lines of work which they would not be likely to undertake of their own accord, as, for example, putting in courses in home economics, agriculture, and teacher training; (2) to encourage counties and communities to inaugurate new and necessary policies, which they would not be likely to put into practice if left without direction, as, for instance, putting the high-school principals on salary the year round; (3) to encourage schools to maintain higher standards of excellence, as, for example, lengthening the school term, organizing the work on a sounder basis, employing better teachers, paying better salaries, etc.; (4) to equalize in some measure opportunities for high school training by helping to support good high schools where they are needed in counties and communities that have not the funds necessary to maintain good high schools.

#### THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL.

It is a matter of judgment that many small high schools are generally doing poor work, but State Inspector Williams, of Indiana, has measured the product of the small and of the large high schools by their records in college. Indiana has 94 public high schools for every 100,000 persons of school age, approximately two and a quarter times as many as New York, its nearest rival. "Of the 850 officially recognized high schools in Indiana, 51 per cent have fewer than four teachers and 71 per cent have fewer than five teachers." Thirty students from these small high schools and 85 from large high

schools had the following distribution of marks in the freshman year at Indiana University:

*Percentage of marks.*

	Small high schools.	Large high schools.
A .....	1.65	12.06
B .....	11.41	31.23
C .....	33.01	31.32
D .....	23.93	13.09
Conditioned .....	14.58	8.68
Failure .....	15.26	2.69

Inspector Williams found similar results in seven other Indiana colleges. Principal Smith, in his survey of Illinois high schools, however, found no such difference between the graduates of small and large schools. Whether the slight inferiority of the small high school in Illinois is due to the fact that in this classification are all schools enrolling up to 100 pupils or to other causes is not known.

Of course the academic success of those pupils who become college students is not the only criterion of the value of a high school. A multiplicity of small high schools certainly increases the number of pupils who enter upon secondary education; disregarding tradition, they may be adapted so as to satisfy peculiar local needs, and they may be made junior high schools and affiliate with a central school which will complement their work, or each one may form a nucleus which later may develop into something larger and more satisfactory. Mr. Williams, in his study, shows that in sections of Indiana abundantly supplied with high schools, small and large, the ratio of secondary school enrollment to the entire school enumeration is from two to four times as large as when the number of high schools is small.

The alternatives proposed for improvement are (1) a reduction and adaptation of the offerings by small high schools and (2) consolidation. The commissioner of secondary schools for California writes:

In planning the course of study for small high schools it is not necessary to include all the subjects or courses taught in larger high schools. The law requires that the high school offer one course of study that will prepare graduates therein for admission to the State university. It does not require that the high school offer courses that will prepare graduates therein for admission to all of the colleges of the State university.

The State inspector of North Dakota writes similarly:

Most high-school programs are too full. Too much is attempted, especially in the smaller high schools. Such a plan makes the limited teaching force attempt too much, and results in a lowered quality of work. In most small schools the superintendent or principal has to do so much class room work that he has neither time nor ambition to give the kindly, helpful, thoughtful counsel and assistance to the teachers both of



the grades and the high school which is so essential to good, satisfactory work. Many times the remedy is in the hands of the teachers themselves. Small classes could often be eliminated and some subjects alternated with profit to all.

In Vermont Commissioner Hillegas and in New Hampshire State Superintendent Morrison have consistently and cogently worked to make the small high schools contribute first of all to the assured needs of the pupils who are likely to have no further education. It should be remarked that in both States emphasis is laid on cultural as well as on the more immediately practical training.

#### CONSOLIDATION AND COORDINATION.

Consolidation in some cases, as in Vermont and Tennessee, carries with it a system of abbreviated or junior high schools, and in others, as notably in Illinois, an enlargement of territory to support a cosmopolitan high school. The program proposed by the Vermont survey has been improved and developed there, and the State superintendent of Tennessee writes:

Until the last legislature we did not have a compulsory high-school tax. We now have a 5-cent high-school tax levied by the State in every county. Until this last year we had, where they had a high school tax, one centralized high school with disorganized inefficient secondary schools which you no doubt well remember. These schools never had a course of study or any regulations. As a result they began nowhere and lead nowhere.

The last legislature passed a law providing for a centralized four-year high school with as many two-year high schools established over the county as may be necessary to bring the first two-years of the high-school work within reasonable reach of all parts of the county. The course of study in these schools is the same as the first-two years in the centralized first-class school. This gives us a splendid high-school system.

The State inspector of high schools for South Carolina, in reviewing the conditions in each district in his State, repeatedly makes such recommendations as the following:

A—— and B—— ought to put aside their petty local pride and unite in establishing a high school that might be the righteous pride of both places. Both districts would save money, and have such a school as neither alone can ever hope to have.

In C—— the school has struggled hard under difficulties. An 8-mill tax for expenses brings in too little money from rural property returned at low valuation. Salaries are low, and the school is housed in a very inferior building. The school would be better off as a rural graded school.

Inspector Williams concludes the study previously quoted with the following paragraphs of recommendation:

The writer proposes, as the highest type of aid by the State, either that in operation in California, where provision is made for separate and special taxation for the support of high schools, or that in effect in New Jersey, where the general school tax is drawn upon for a special apportionment to high schools. In the one case, the annual high school levy is determined by multiplying the number of pupils in average daily attendance by \$15—a State-wide tax of approximately 14 mills. In the other, the special apportionment is made to high schools on the basis of \$100 for every teacher employed

and of a fixed sum per pupil per day of actual attendance. Some such system in Indiana would prove a powerful stimulus to the maintenance of standard conditions and equalize the high-school facilities in every part of the State.

Fortunately, Indiana school law has made notable progress in the direction indicated. Legal provision exists for union or consolidation of the following varieties:

(1) Joint high schools. On the petition of a definite number of legal voters of two or more school corporations, an election must be called to determine the desirability of maintaining a joint high school. If favorable, the two corporations may unite in one of the following combinations:

(a) Joint town (or city) and township high school. In this case, cost of maintenance is apportioned in proportion to the taxables of each corporation, and the school is managed by a joint board.

(b) High-school district. A city (of any class) or incorporated town may establish and maintain jointly with one or more contiguous townships (or portions thereof) a high school district. Maintenance and management as before. Provision is made for voluntary withdrawal at any time from the arrangement by any member of the district.

(c) Joint township high school. Two adjoining townships, having a combined taxable valuation of three quarters of a million dollars (\$750,000), may establish and support a joint high school, provided no high school already exists in either corporation and eight or more pupils have graduated from the common schools in each of two previous years.

(2) Consolidated high schools. Under similar conditions, a town or fifth class city and the adjacent township may consolidate two or more existing high schools. Two plans of management are provided:

(a) A new board consisting of the township trustee and two persons chosen by town or city council, one of these a resident of the city or town and the other of the township outside.

(b) A joint board composed of the township trustee and secretary of the school board, with appeal to the county superintendent.

Thus ample legal sanction exists for communities to combine resources and unite for high grade working conditions.

As is well known, Illinois has gone further in the establishing of consolidated high schools than any other State. The story of the development of its township high schools, a type that might well be adopted in other sections of the country, is told by University Visitor Hollister in Bulletin 25, 1917, of the United States Bureau of Education, and many interesting data are presented in Principal Smith's Survey of Illinois High Schools. The law permitting the organization of a high school in contiguous territory regardless of political boundaries, under which nearly 200 new schools were established, was in 1917 declared unconstitutional; but the next legislature promptly passed a better act. Of the present situation State Supt. Blair writes:

All of the territory of a county not included in a recognized high school district is considered nonhigh-school territory. A board is elected within this nonhigh-school territory and levies a tax to pay the tuition of all eighth-grade graduates residing within the nonhigh-school territory. An unusual and most effective plan is provided for taking care of the two and three year high schools. In many of our mining villages and smaller communities the people desiring to keep their children at home during the first years of the high-school course sought to maintain a high school and an elementary school on the one tax of 14 per cent on the assessed value.

tion of the property. In almost every instance it was found that to maintain such a high school meant the shortening of the elementary school, the lowering of the wages paid the teachers and the consequent reduction of elementary-school opportunities. Now, this new law places all recognized two and three year high schools within the nonhigh-school territory. All of the funds within these local two and three year high-school districts is to be used for the elementary schools and they are taxed with the rest of the district for the payment of the tuition of all the eighth-grade graduates within the nonhigh-school district. All the children attending these two and three year high schools have their tuition paid out of this fund. If a two-year high-school district has 20 pupils enrolled, it receives 20 times the per capita cost of maintaining the high-school courses. If a three-year high school has 35 pupils, it receives 35 times the per capita cost of maintaining the high-school courses, all paid out of the nonhigh-school tuition fund. You will note that the provisions for forming community high-school districts is much better safeguarded than under the law of 1911, which was declared unconstitutional by the supreme court.

In Kentucky adjacent counties have been given the privilege by the legislature of combining for the establishing and maintaining a joint high school covering a territory larger than the single county as an educational unit. The congressional district high schools of Georgia are well known. And in North Carolina there are the farm-life schools. Of these State Supt. Joyner says in his recent report:

Since the amendment to the farm-life school law, allowing any county that will provide the required equipment and an annual maintenance fund equal to the amount received from the State to avail itself of the State appropriation not to exceed a maximum of \$2,500 for instruction in agriculture, sewing, cooking, household economics and other farm-life subjects in connection with one or more of its rural high schools, 9 new farm-life schools have been established during the biennial period, making a total of 21 such schools in 17 counties of the State. No part of the annual maintenance fund for these schools or of the funds for their necessary equipment is allowed to be taken out of the regular school funds and to shorten the regular public-school term until these funds are sufficient to provide a minimum of six months. The significant and hopeful fact about their establishment through the cooperation and sacrifice of the people of the communities in which they are located is the evidence that it furnishes of intense interest in the education of country boys and girls for country life, and of the faith of the country people in a sort of education and school that can and will provide better preparation for more profitable, more comfortable, more healthful, more joyous, and more contented living in the country.

The progress of centralized schools in North Carolina and the program for the future is set forth as follows:

Under the law and the rules adopted by the State board of education not more than four of these schools can be established in any one county. No public high school can be established except in connection with a public school having at least two other teachers in the elementary and intermediate grades, and the entire time of at least one teacher must be devoted to the high-school grades. No public high school can be established in a town of more than 1,200 inhabitants.

Each district in which a public high school is established is required to duplicate by special taxation or subscription the amount apportioned to the school from the State appropriation; each county is required to apportion to each public high school



out of the county fund an amount equal to that apportioned to it out of the State appropriation. The minimum sum that can be apportioned annually from the State appropriation for the establishment and maintenance of any public high school is \$200 and the maximum sum \$600. The total sum annually available for any public high school established under this act ranges, therefore, from \$600 to \$1,800. The high-school funds can be used only for the payment of salaries of the high-school teachers and the necessary incidental expenses of the high-school grades.

There are now from one to four public high schools in each of 96 counties of the State. There are therefore four counties in which no public high schools have yet been established. For the proper maintenance and development of these high schools more money will of course be required.

It is our hope to be able to select the best high school in each county, taking into consideration the location, the accessibility, the environment, etc., and develop this into a real first-class county high school, doing thorough high-school work for four full years and some vocational work in agriculture, sewing and cooking, and other rural-life subjects. Around this school should be built a dormitory and a teachers' home. The dormitory, properly conducted, would afford an opportunity for the boys and girls from all parts of the county to board at actual cost. Many of these could return to their homes Friday evening, coming back Monday morning. Many of them who do not have the money to spare to pay their board would probably be able to bring such provisions as are raised on the farm and have them credited on their board at the market price. A small room rent could be charged each student. The principal's home would make it possible to secure a better principal and keep him probably for years, thereby giving more permanency to the school and more continuity to the work, making a citizen of the teacher and enabling him and his family to become potent factors in the permanent life of the community, contributing no small part to uplifting it, morally and intellectually, by their influence. Then the other high schools in different sections of the county should be correlated with this central school, and the course of study in these should be limited probably to not more than two years of high-school work, requiring all students desiring to pursue the last two years of the four-year course to attend the central county high school, which will be fully equipped in all respects for thorough high-school work.

Thirty-nine of these public high schools now have 46 dormitories, in which more than 18 per cent of the county high-school pupils secure board at actual cost and pay for it in money, or in provisions at the market price.

That the effect of consolidation has not everywhere proved satisfactory is evidenced by the following quotation from the 1917 report of the inspector of high schools in Minnesota: There for several years a law has been in force making possible the affiliation of a number of rural schools with a central school of 12 grades, one superintendent overseeing all the work.

As a State-wide policy, association of rural schools with a central school as a means of improving the rural schools is not satisfactory. The superintendent of a village or city school system is, by training, experience, and lack of first-hand interest, unsuited to the task of supervising rural schools. The exception proves the rule. Withdraw State aid for association, and the entire fabric which has been building for eight years would fall to pieces. In few places has it brought lasting good to either party to the contract. The villages and cities will never succeed in making over the rural school or otherwise materially improving rural-life conditions. Like the rest of us the farming people must and will work out their own salvation. The great benefits which we expected from association were to come as the result of closer and more skillful super-



vision. But, with a few notable exceptions, we have accomplished nothing for the improvement of the rural school and have wrought injury to the central school itself by scattering the time and interest of the superintendent over too large and diversified a field.

It should be evident to even a casual reader that all programs for consolidation more or less tend toward a centralization of authority. Whenever funds are supplied from a central source, direction of work naturally follows. Repeatedly in the report are found "the course of study as outlined or approved by this office," and similar phrases. No theme was more frequently or emphatically presented at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendence than the necessity of State and Federal aid to schools in order not only to equalize the opportunities for education but also to safeguard the interests of the larger political and social units. The tendency and the underlying sentiment toward centralization are strong; before induration they should be carefully and fully considered as part of the new national program.

#### LARGER USE OF THE SCHOOL PLANT:

Another tendency manifested in the reports of the biennium is toward a more complete use of high-school buildings. The marvelous increase in registration during the past years has made it obvious to the observant that even the ambitious building program could not long satisfy the demands upon it. Now, partly because of the great enrollment in secondary schools and partly because the war has very generally put a stop to new construction, there are numerous reports, especially in eastern cities, of high-school buildings being occupied more or less all day by two or more platoons of pupils. This duplicate use of high-school buildings is found very generally in New York City and also in Schenectady, Jamestown, and Erie, N. Y.; New Haven, Conn.; Paterson and Jersey City, N. J.; Chelsea, Mass.; Kansas City, Mo.; and Dallas, Tex. Many cities report that in the high-school building are held public meetings of various kinds; in Stamford, Conn., for example, during 1916-17 there were in the high-school building for the public 15 lectures, 39 receptions, 18 entertainments, 22 civic meetings, and 8 "other functions," with an estimated total attendance of 16,900. More and more high-school buildings are open for evening schools, for summer schools, and for other activities during the vacation months. The Washington Irving High School in New York City, for example, during the summer of 1918 was used as a regular academic summer high school; as a school to fit adult women for Government service; as a recreation center, using the gymnasium and roofs for play and dancing and the assembly hall for concerts; as a community forum, where various groups met for the discussion of public questions; and as quarters for university extension courses.

## THE HIGH SCHOOLS AND THE COLLEGES.

Less than formerly is being said about college entrance requirements, partly because the colleges have, from time to time modified their demands, partly because a larger number of high schools, usually the small or the weak ones, attempt for all pupils nothing but what is required for entrance to college, and partly because many other secondary schools are differentiating their work, preparing some pupils for college and others for the immediate demands of society. The most significant changes regarding college entrance during the biennium were probably the new requirements of four prominent women's colleges of the East and the decision of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, in the territory of which is 55 per cent of the high school population, not to participate further in the National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements. It is stated that now not more than 15 per cent of the students who enter college do so by passing admission examinations.

The criticism by colleges of the high schools and their work has been very neatly turned by Inspector Hand, of South Carolina, in his annual report for 1917:

Much has been said and written in recent years about the increased requirements for college entrance. The requirements have been increased. But there is another side to the matter—one that is very rarely mentioned. What advance has been made in the standards of the colleges beyond the entrance requirements? How much higher grade of work is the freshman class doing? How much higher grade of work is the senior class getting? A close comparison of some of your catalogues for 1909-10 with those for 1916-17 reveals a curious, if not incongruous, state of affairs. Colleges that have within that time almost doubled their published entrance requirements are doing almost the same work they did seven years ago. For illustration, take the subjects that are fairly well graded, such as mathematics, Latin, and English. In numerous instances the wording describing these courses has not been changed in years. In many instances the textbooks have not been changed. In others the textbooks have been changed only as to authors. In still others considerable changes have been made in the freshman and sophomore work with very few in the junior and senior work. This situation explains how pupils from ordinary four-year high schools are still getting into the sophomore class with discouraging frequency.

He goes on to point out that all of the 15 colleges of South Carolina that "require" 14 units for admission are not justified in so doing by either their own work or by that of the high schools of the State, and that in the freshman class of these colleges there are 146 per cent of the number of pupils in the fourth year of high schools in the State in the preceding year. Fully one-half of the freshmen entered on condition.

Your patrons and the public have a right to know just how these conditions are removed. In how many hours do you work off two units of conditions requiring in the high school 240 sixty-minute hours? Who does the work and in what manner is it done? Show the public in your catalogues how it comes about that a 12-unit student with two units to make up can graduate on schedule time with the 14-unit

students without hurt to either. What effect is the plan going to have on the maintenance of four-year high schools? It is already telling against them.

The criticism is quoted at length because of its pertinency to conditions in several other States as well.

There is evidence of an increasing effort by the high school to inform elementary pupils of its offerings and opportunities. Some cities (e. g., Milwaukee) publish handbooks for the information of eighth-grade pupils; and many others (e. g., Decatur, Ill., and Dallas, Tex.) publish similar handbooks that are distributed to the incoming freshmen in order that they may quickly adjust themselves to new conditions. In Cleveland, Ohio, the seniors in different high schools are reported to have visited the eighth grades from which they came and there to have made brief talks on the benefits of high-school education.

Data in numerous reports indicate the growth of a more critical attitude of schoolmen toward their work. Statements of "impressions" and of untested experiments are more and more giving way to records substantiated by standard measures and by definite figures. Because of the complexity of the aims in secondary school subjects, few standard measures have so far been developed; but in several surveys and city reports are the scores of high-school pupils in spelling, in composition writing, in reading, and in algebra; the Ayres, Hillegas, Kansas or Thorndike, and Monroe or Rugg and Clark measures being used. When the purposes of each phase of secondary education have been more clearly defined, we may expect the development of tests adequately to measure accomplishments of all kinds.

#### FAILURES AND MARKS.

It is interesting to note the concern that is now being taken by school administrators with failures and school marks. The academic studies concerning these topics, startling and disappointing as they have always been, are now being applied widely to reveal information that will lead to the improvement of school work. El Paso, Tex., Stamford, Conn., Paterson, N. J., Topeka, Kans., and Altoona and Johnstown, Pa., are cities that have published in their annual reports studies of failures in their high schools. Supt. Cary included in "Education in Wisconsin" a study by Jeanette Rankin of the number and per cent of pupils dropped, failed, and promoted in 75 high schools of the State. This is the most comprehensive of recent studies. It shows that for the 75 high schools 10 per cent of all the student-hour work was dropped and 9 per cent failed. As usual, the worst records were during the first year, in the more conventional subjects, and by the boys.

A study of the marks recorded by subjects and by teachers frequently leads to a revision of the marking system. The story of how this happened in one school is interestingly told by Supt. Camp, of



Stamford, Conn.; in his report for 1917, and afterwards more elaborately in the School Review. The weighting of marks so that they will give qualitative as well as quantitative credit seems to be widely accepted, and individual schools report that the plan when used has given satisfaction. In Chicago Supt. Shoop recommended shortly before his death that credits of increasing weights be given by the high schools for the subjects from freshman to senior. This would be a variation of a rather widespread practice of denying a pupil the privilege of taking for credit any academic subject listed in the curriculum more than one year above or below the class in which the pupil is.

#### RETARDATION, ATTENDANCE, AND ELIMINATION.

Closely related to a consideration of failures and marking systems are the studies of retardation, attendance, elimination, the source of high-school pupils, and the immediate destination of the graduates. Age-grade tables have for a number of years been common in reports on the elementary schools; they are now appearing with increasing frequency in the sections concerning the high schools. The worth of such a study is determined, of course, by what results from it; there is no apparent value in merely collecting and publishing the figures. One superintendent very properly is pleased with the number of over-age pupils in the high school, as he had made a special effort to recruit for further study young men and women who had prematurely left school for work; another administrator would with equal propriety be so disturbed by such a showing as to make a study of the efficiency of the grammar grades. Several schools report the number of pupils who are present for different proportions of the semester, but not one of them correlates the data with the facts concerning success in school work, and not one of them presents any program for improving the attendance.

One of the most pleasing results of the secondary school development is its increased holding power. In scientific studies the term "persistence" is replacing "elimination." The losses between the beginning of the ninth grade and graduation, however, are still very large. Pickell and Winkelblech, using a rough measure, have showed that in the States the highest percentage of the freshman class to be in school four years later is 54, in Indiana; the lowest, 17, in the Carolinas. For the United States the percentage is 38. In New York City, where a large number of pupils are said to enter the high schools to await the time when they may secure working papers or to ascertain by sampling whether they will like the work or not, the percentage is as low as 21. Supt. Cary reports that in 1916 the enrollment of Wisconsin high schools was distributed as follows: Special students, 1; freshmen, 34; sophomores, 20; juniors, 20; seniors, 16. Of the 16 seniors, 14 graduated.



Inspector Meredith records the progress of the class entering New Jersey high schools, as follows:

Year.	Grade.	Number.	Percent.
1914.....	IX	16,998	100
1915.....	X	11,657	65
1916.....	XI	8,072	47
1917.....	XII	6,502	32

El Paso, Tex., La Crosse, Wis., Paterson, N. J., Topeka, Kans., and other cities present tables showing the number and percentage of elimination by semesters and by causes; and Kansas City, with its efficient bureau of measurements, publishes a comparative table that contains the approximate percentage of all pupils entering the public schools who complete the high-school course in 17 cities. The range is from 7.3 and 7.4, for Newark and New York, to 25.8 and 25.9, for Portland, Oreg., and Seattle. "In 1891," the Kansas City report continues, "only 4 per cent of our pupils who entered the elementary schools completed the high-school course, but in 1917 this per cent had increased to 19.8." The Kansas City report for 1917 also shows the percentage of high-school pupils dropped annually from 1900 to 1917. The median percentage for the 19 years is 20.1, with a probable error of 1.1; however, the average for the last 9 years is 19.4, or 1.4 per cent less than that for the first 9 years of the period.

#### HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS.

In "Education in Wisconsin," we are told the source of high-school pupils. In the whole State—where, by the way, 17 per cent of all city pupils are in high school, as compared with 7 per cent of all country pupils—63 per cent of the pupils entering secondary schools in 1915-16 come from local city elementary grades, 2 per cent from the elementary grades of other cities, 7 per cent from State graded schools, 18 per cent from rural schools, and 10 per cent from private and parochial schools. Of the graduates in 1915-16 of the eighth grades of Wisconsin, 46 per cent entered high school from the rural schools, 41 per cent from the State graded schools, 85 per cent from the village grades, and 85 per cent from the city grades. These figures, while encouraging as indicative of progress, show that there is still much to be done even in such favored communities to equalize opportunities for secondary education. Such information should be had for many cities and States, so that a new national program may be soundly based on facts.

No less important than the source of our high-school pupils is what becomes of them immediately after they graduate. The most complete recent study seems to be that in the Des Moines Public

School Pupil and Employment Vocational Guidance Bulletin No. 2, 1916. In this we are given a summary of the study of 380 graduates of the public high schools in 1914, supplemented by a tabulation of the overambitious plans of the senior class for their immediate future, of the occupational distribution of the parents of children attending high schools, and of what the employers of graduates have to say about them. Other tabulations of the occupations of parents of high-school pupils are given by Thorndike and by Koons in Educational Administration and Supervision. Those who believe that the primary duty of the schools is to prepare their pupils to perform better the desirable activities that they are likely to perform any way will find in such tabulations much information to influence the reorganization of courses of study.

#### HIGH SCHOOLS FOR NEGROES.

One phase of secondary education has never been fully considered, that of negro boys and girls. In the South, where enough negro pupils desire secondary education to warrant it, segregated high schools are established, but the curricula and courses are often not well adapted to the peculiar needs of the pupils. The provisions at St. Louis must be cited as conspicuously good, however. Frequently the equipment is poor and the content of the courses highly academic. Age-grade tables, as those from El Paso, show the negro pupil considerably retarded, and the elimination everywhere is high. In Louisville, Ky., for 1915-16, only 10 per cent of the students were enrolled in the senior class, and the sophomores were 44 per cent of the number enrolled as freshmen. In the whole State of Kentucky in 1916-17 there were 32 negro high schools, with an average enrollment of fewer than 41 pupils, 1,225 negro pupils for the entire State. Half of the entire enrollment was in the freshman class and only 9.1 per cent of it in the senior class. It should be noted that in these schools the average value of the equipment for manual training and domestic science was less than \$700, ranging from \$25 to \$2,150. The per capita cost for conducting the 32 schools was \$12.

In the North, negro children when they apply are admitted to high schools with little or no distinction because of their race or peculiar needs. Some years ago Mayo showed that in one of the New York City high schools the negro pupils, although a very highly selected group, did work inferior to that of the white pupils. In the 1917 report of Supt. Wilson, of Topeka, Kans., there are tables presenting the facts concerning withdrawal and failure in the high school of negro and white pupils by subjects for several semesters. The tables are prefaced by the statement:

The facts shown in the following tabulations I am reporting with regret. The tables show an abnormally high per cent of failures among the colored pupils. \* \* \* The facts are that the colored pupils show a lack of efficiency somewhere in the system. The problem is not one for the cheap politicians or the demagogues of either race.

The facts presented seem to show that in the Nation as a whole the conditions of secondary education are not as satisfactory for the negro pupils as for the white. If the State affords education not as a luxury for the individual, but rather as a serious investment for the return which will come to itself, it can not safely neglect any important group of its people.

#### SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS.

Before the declaration of war by the United States the movement for improving the quality of secondary school teachers was strong. Many States, particularly those in the North Central Association territory or contiguous to it, had adopted for high schools standards which included one or more items concerning the preparation and experience of teachers; and the inspectors in several reports stated that the quality was steadily improving. The legislative committee of the Kentucky Educational Association in 1917 passed the following resolution:

Since the rules and regulations of the State board of education, under the requirements of statutory law, fix the minimum academic scholarship of teachers in standard four-year high schools at the equivalent of high-school graduation plus two additional years' training in normal schools or colleges, we favor the enactment of these regulations into statutory law for the advice and government of boards of education and trustees throughout the State.

Washington has raised its requirements for high-school teachers to a complete college course which includes 12 semester hours in education; and the State superintendent of Utah announces in his report for 1916 that:

The State board of education has wisely increased the requirements for certificates to teach until at present high-school teachers must have completed a standard college course of four years, and this must include, or the applicant must have in addition to his degree, after June 30, 1917, one year of professional work, 18 hours of which must be strictly educational subjects.

This is essentially the requirement of California, a State which for a number of years had led the country with its standards for teachers of public high schools. Even Louisiana, the schools of which have been handicapped by extremely inadequate appropriations, adopted in 1916 a standard that will be gradually raised until the minimum requirement for teachers in high schools is graduation from a four-year college or university course. This standard can hardly be attained unless the State makes a material increase in salaries for high-school teachers, the average at that time being \$680. As an illustration of a practical set of requirements, those from New Hampshire are given, together with the introduction, both from Circular No. 1, 1917.

At this time it is impossible to obtain secondary teachers trained for their work. We will accept this condition for the present, but we must insist that teachers have no other capital defect beyond their ignorance of the teaching process. We have

long demanded that they be satisfactory in character and in mentality. We must now insist that they have in addition sufficient maturity and experience to make them leaders of young people, and sufficient knowledge so that they may guide them. This department plans to uphold superintendents and headmasters in their efforts to secure only qualified teachers, and to this end will make the specific approval of the teachers engaged a preliminary to the approval of the school.

The following schedule is published to enable school officials to determine the general education and the special training to be required of candidates. It will be noted that in two notable particulars this statement differs from those given before.

(1) A real requirement is set for the education of teachers of commerce. The commerce courses have been the least successful and the least honored of secondary courses, and a common reason is that the teachers have seldom been the equal of the teachers in other courses in education, in experience, or in maturity. This requirement is designed to prevent the approval of such teachers. It is desirable that schools drop their commerce curriculum if they are unable to secure qualified teachers.

(2) The second change is in required special preparation. It is insisted that teachers be not assigned to teach subjects with which they are not familiar.

*General education required.*—Teachers must have a bachelor's degree from an approved college.

*Exceptions.*—Teachers who have studied four full years in approved schools of post-secondary grade.

Teachers who were in service in New Hampshire approved secondary schools prior to July 15, 1905.

Teachers of modern languages who have received adequate European or other training. Individual cases to be approved by the department. Provided in this and the three cases following that not less than 80 per cent of their teaching be in their specialized subject.

Teachers of domestic arts who have pursued at least three full years of post-secondary study in approved special institutions.

Teachers of commerce who have pursued at least two full years of post-secondary study in commerce in approved special institutions. In addition they must have two years of general post-secondary study, of office work or of successful experience in teaching.

Teachers of mechanic arts with scholastic and practical preparation sufficient for needs of their work. Individual cases to be approved by the department.

Teachers holding Grade B certificates whose work is restricted to grades seven to nine, except as specifically approved.

Teachers who have one, two, or three years of post-secondary study in approved institutions may be approved to teach courses not above the corresponding years of the secondary program.

Teachers who fail to meet the above qualifications but are now teaching with success in approved New Hampshire secondary schools. Individual cases to be approved and the courses that may be taught to be specified by the department.

*Special preparation required.*—Teachers must be prepared by two or more years of post-secondary study of each subject they propose to teach, such study to include the branches of the subject presented in the secondary courses.

*Exceptions.*—Teachers who have but one or two classes in a subject may be prepared by one year of post-secondary study of that subject.

Each year of post-secondary study may be replaced by two years of successful teaching of the subject in approved secondary schools.

For inexperienced teachers the department may waive the minimum requirement for one class only. Individual cases to be approved.



These illustrative standards are much more encouraging, however, than the reports of actual conditions. The progressive State of Wisconsin reports that, in 1916, 79 per cent of its high-school teachers in cities, and 56 per cent of those in county high schools, were graduates of colleges or technical schools, no account being taken of the standing of these higher institutions. Pennsylvania reports that only 46.2 per cent of its high-school teachers were in 1917 graduates of colleges. State Supt. Morrison makes a frank statement of the conditions in New Hampshire:

Of the 507 different teachers employed in secondary schools of all classes approved by this office for the school year 1915-16, 393 or 77.5 per cent were graduates of colleges which grant the bachelor's degree. Of the remaining 114, the large majority were instructors in practical arts subjects judged to have had the requisite special training for instruction in the subjects which they teach. Twenty-five were teachers of modern language and other liberal arts branches who were not college graduates but who had prepared themselves by special study for instruction in their chosen fields and were deemed to have had the full equivalent of college graduation. The remainder of the 114 were graduates of normal schools or equivalent institutions teaching in junior high schools or third and fourth class high schools. Ninety-three per cent of all teachers of liberal arts branches in first-class secondary schools were graduates of colleges.

We have less than a dozen teachers of modern languages in the State who are thoroughly competent in education to teach modern languages in a high school, but most of the remainder are passably competent; less than 20 who are thoroughly competent for science; less than half a dozen for history; a dozen for mathematics; a very few for Latin; almost nobody in English unless the pedantic conception of the language and literature of the mother tongue which most of them bring from college is competency. And yet the teaching staff of our secondary schools is better educated to-day than it was 20 years ago, when it was no uncommon thing for teachers to be employed for high schools whose education had been limited to that of the schools in which they taught.

We have still in this State, as in most States, a secondary teaching staff which is wholly untrained. Not one per cent of the secondary teachers of the State have ever had any professional training at all comparable to what 44 per cent of the elementary teaching force has had. A few have taken courses in education in college, and that is a help.

There are reported 147 persons teaching in the secondary schools of the State in the school year 1915-16 who graduated from college in 1914 or 1915. This is more than one-third of all the college graduates teaching during the year, and the same proportion practically would hold for the noncollege teachers. That means that you turn over your boys and girls at their most impressionable age to striplings who are without training or experience, who have no notions of teaching except those which they bring with them from college; and who in most cases have no intention whatever of teaching beyond the few years which form a fitting interlude between college and matrimony. We wouldn't deny them the latter, but we do think that if they are going to teach at all they ought to learn how to teach just as do the girls who are two years younger and who are teaching in the elementary schools.

Our notebooks and records of inspection tell a wretched tale of the farcical instruction commonly found in the classrooms of these young teachers, particularly in English, both language and literature, in history, in languages and in science. Ordinarily teaching consists in assigning pages out of an incomprehensible textbook

or dictating from a college notebook. And this to boys and girls of an age which need skillful teaching beyond any age other than that of the primary school.

Of course, there is found the occasional "born teacher," and, on the other hand, anybody who has the mentality to have won through college improves through experience. But the point of view is prone to remain permanently formalistic, and it too often rapidly becomes pedantic.

In order that administrators might have some index of the kind of teachers the different colleges are furnishing the schools of New Hampshire, Dr. Morrison has asked the several superintendents and principals of the State to rate their teachers who were recent college graduates. The following instructions were used:

In rating use the letters A, B, C, and D. Use A for a teacher who is all that you could reasonably ask, efficient in practice and possessed of an understanding of what she is doing and why she is doing it. Use D for teachers who were incompetent and ought to have been dismissed or were dismissed. Use B and C for grades between. A "B" teacher may be thought of as characterized by the term "Good average." A "C" teacher is one who is rather below the mark and ought to be dismissed unless she improves, but in whose case there is ground for hope that she will improve. She is not incompetent. Mark critically and severely.

These ratings for the whole State are tabulated by colleges and published.

State High School Inspector Hand, of South Carolina, makes an even more depressing statement of facts as he sees them in his State:

To anyone familiar with the conditions that obtain in many places throughout the State, it is simply amazing to see the absolute indifference of the people as to the qualifications of those who teach their children and throw them of their money. Men and women innocent of any charge of education, without any aptitude to teach, and without any experience are put in charge of schools, in the face of the fact that they are to have little, if any, supervision. It is safe to say that there are in South Carolina 500 white teachers holding legal certificates to teach who could not make a grade of 50 per cent on the studies of the eighth and ninth grades of our public schools, if examined as rigidly as are the pupils of these grades in the best schools of the State. It would be unsafe to say how many white teachers are holding certificates granted on all manner of pretexts, from long experience (successful or unsuccessful) down to two weeks' enrollment at some summer school. Notwithstanding the fact that almost anybody can get a certificate to teach school, there are in the public schools not fewer than 100 white teachers drawing salaries without any semblance of legal authority to teach. Some of them have been teaching from 10 to 20 years without a certificate of any kind.

These statements have concerned the teachers of entire States. From the following quotation from the 1918 report of Associate Supt. Tildsley, of New York, it seems that even cities where the highest absolute salaries are paid are suffering materially from the low quality of new teachers entering the high schools. Abnormal business conditions are not the only cause.

We have experienced this past year an increasing difficulty in securing men teachers of the personality and training New York City has a right to demand in the teachers of its youth. The rapidly mounting cost of living has so reduced the purchasing

power of salaries that men, and especially married men, can not live on the salaries which were fixed on the basis of a much lower cost of living. While teachers' salaries have been reduced through the operation of rising prices, opportunities for employment at rising salaries have been opened up in business, with the result that not only is the supply of men teachers being cut off at its source, namely, the graduating classes of our colleges, but teachers now in our schools are being drawn away by the larger salaries paid in other occupations. Unless the high-school pupils in this city are to be taught entirely by women or by men of inferior personality inadequately trained, and without the character and the qualities of leadership which are needed in those who are expected to train our boys and girls for the responsible duties of citizenship, a very considerable increase in the salaries of high-school teachers must be made. Much as we all deplore the constant increase in the tax rate, the people of New York must realize that in this city with its large foreign population, the cost of education must be reckoned a first charge on revenues.

It needs only a casual comparison of the so-called salaries of school-teachers with the wages now received by men and women in the world of industry and commerce to explain these conditions and others equally bad, though for various reasons not presented in school reports.

#### THE TENURE OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS.

However good teachers and principals are, schools can not be satisfactory unless tenure in the same position continues over a considerable period. In Wisconsin the median length of experience for all high-school teachers was in 1916 four years; the median length of service in one locality was one year or less. In Pennsylvania the story is only a little better: Half the teachers who are graduates of colleges have taught five years or less, and half of those who are only graduates of normal schools have taught only two years longer. The condition in small high schools is everywhere pitifully bad, changes of teachers occurring with great frequency, and supervision being negligible. From California, where salaries are relatively high, come the following report and recommendations:

The commissioner has compiled data showing that the tenure of principals and teachers in the small high schools is all too short. Of the 32 small high schools established previous to 1911-12, 6 made no change in the principalship during the four years ending June 30, 1916; 11 made two changes; 12 made three changes; 2 made four changes; and 1 made five changes. The average tenure of principals was a little over two years. These schools in 1915-16 employed 104 assistant teachers. Of this number only 10 were teaching in California high schools in 1911-12. It would seem therefore that the small high schools are taught for the most part by teachers with little experience. By fixing the minimum salary of principals at \$1,600 per annum, for example, which is \$100 less than the average now paid, and advancing the salary \$100 per annum until a maximum of \$2,000 is reached, school boards in charge of small high schools will undoubtedly be able to retain the services of principals for a term of years. It is desirable that high-school boards be authorized by law to employ principals for a four-year term after one year of probationary service.

When we consider teachers' salaries, we find a similar situation. Good teachers are in demand and better salaries attract them. By adopting a salary schedule based upon experience the school board will establish a condition favorable to the retention

of teachers by the district for a longer period. The commissioner suggests that the minimum salary in small high schools be fixed at \$1,000 per annum, and that provision be made for an increase in the salary annually until a certain maximum is reached. The additional amount paid to teachers under this plan will yield better returns to the community than the same amount expended for an additional teacher.

#### New Hampshire has a worse story to tell:

The teaching force is very unstable. Very nearly two-fifths of all our secondary teachers were new to their places last year. Three-fifths were holding their positions for the first or second year; 37.4 of the college graduates had held their degrees for less than two years. This proportion holds year after year, and the situation is almost fatal to the efficiency of our higher institutions. Only about 9 per cent of our whole secondary teaching force were graduated from a New Hampshire institution. With rare exceptions, the remaining 91 per cent have no stake in New Hampshire, they are not personally the best of material, they do not understand our ways, and naturally they move at the first opportunity.

The situation in Massachusetts is graphically told in the two accompanying tables, the first showing the length of tenure of principals in each class of high schools, Class IV being the weakest, and the second revealing the absurdly small increases in salary that the principals were given. Approximately one-half of those who held their old positions had no increase at all, and 72 per cent of those who were rewarded were given an increment of \$100 or less, 26 per cent very considerably less. The wonder is that trained men and women enter at all, to say nothing of remaining in, a vocation that offers such niggardly rewards for service.

*Tenure of principal's position.*

Number of years principal occupied his present position previous to September, 1916.	Number of high schools.				Total.
	Group I.	Group II.	Group III.	Group IV.	
0 years.....	8	14	9	21	52
1 year.....	8	6	10	9	33
2 years.....	12	4	12	10	38
3 or 4 years.....	11	11	16	7	45
5 to 10 years.....	23	11	10	7	51
Over 10 years.....	23	7	6		36
Total.....	85	53	63	64	265

The following table shows that of the 203 principals who occupied their present positions last year only 100 received an increase in salary.

*Increase in principal's salary.*

Increment in salaries.	Number of high schools.				Total.
	Group I.	Group II.	Group III.	Group IV.	
Change in principal.....	8	14	9	21	52
No increment.....	44	22	22	16	104
Increment of \$50 or less.....	2	4	13	7	26
Increment of \$51 to \$100.....	14	8	16	8	46
Increment of more than \$100.....	17	5	3	3	28
Total.....	85	53	63	64	265



A State policy of providing adequate increments in the salaries of high-school principals would do much to attract men of superior ability and to reduce the excessive changes in the principalship.

The median length of service in their positions by principals of first-class high schools in Missouri in 1916 was less than two years.

#### EFFECT OF THE WAR ON TENURE.

However bad conditions were in 1916, they became considerably worse with the entrance of the United States into the war. Large numbers of the young men teachers entered the Army, as there were no provisions by the Government for retaining them in the less dramatic but equally important national service of teaching. Some, especially teachers of science and of industrial subjects, have forsaken the schoolroom to aid in the campaign behind the lines; and recently there has been a steady and successful movement to enlist some of the most desirable young principals and teachers in various kinds of social work among the soldiers. The schools have willingly given up all these men and women as their part in winning the war, but it is a national shame that a false sense of economy on the part of the public should have permitted so many thousands of other principals and teachers to be tempted from the schools by the large increases in wages offered them by industries of all kinds. It is imperative that a program be formulated at an early date for recruiting for the secondary schools the highest quality of young men and women and for giving them adequate academic and professional training to equip them to educate the million and a half boys and girls who are seeking some form of advanced education.

#### THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS.

For the 1916 report of State High-School Inspector Kingsley, Prof. Inglis, of Harvard, prepared the following statement concerning the preparation of high-school teachers in Massachusetts. An ideal program for the training of such teachers has been formulated and recently published by the College Teachers of Education.

The colleges of Massachusetts have always been the main source from which teachers are recruited for the secondary schools of the Commonwealth. Until the last decade of the nineteenth century the training thus afforded included solely instruction in the subject matter of the various studies to be taught. No attempt was made to provide specific training through professional subjects of education until 1891, when such training was begun at Harvard University. At the present time such courses are to some extent provided in all except 4 of the 18 colleges of the Commonwealth.

The desirable forms of professional training for secondary school teachers and the work now offered by the colleges of the Commonwealth are as follows:

1. Instruction in the subject matter of the studies to be taught in the secondary school. This is now well provided in nearly all the colleges.

2. Instruction in the fundamental professional subjects of education, such as the history of education, educational psychology, and principles of education. Thirteen or fourteen colleges in the State offer such courses, though in some cases these courses are taught by instructors not primarily interested in education as a professional subject of study.

3. Instruction in the principles and problems of secondary education. Nine or ten colleges offer such courses. Much remains to be done in this field.

4. Instruction in the methods of teaching in the secondary school. This may be provided separately or combined with instruction in the principles and problems of secondary education, or combined with instruction in the teaching of various subjects. This work is offered in a few institutions only, and is generally admitted to be inadequate.

5. Instruction in the teaching of various subjects. Five or six colleges provide some courses of this nature, but the condition is very unsatisfactory, in part because it is uneconomical to provide separate courses in the teaching of all the various subjects on account of the small number of students intending to teach a single subject, and in part because such courses are commonly taught by the regular college instructor in those subjects whose experience in secondary-school teaching has been slight or entirely lacking.

6. Experience in supervised apprentice teaching. Nine or ten colleges now offer facilities for such apprentice teaching under professional supervision.

In 1916 about 700 graduates of Massachusetts colleges entered the teaching profession, for the most part in the secondary schools of this and other States. Of that number approximately 500 had taken at least two professional courses in education. Returns from colleges show that few, probably less than 100, had done some apprentice teaching as a part of their professional training in the college.

The colleges of Massachusetts have made a promising beginning of training teachers for the secondary schools of the State. Further progress in that direction is conditioned by a number of factors, among which the most important are—

1. The establishment of a system of certification which shall prescribe standards of admission to the service and encourage the professional training of secondary-school teachers.

2. Recognition of the fact that a graduate year of professional study is essential for the adequate training of such teachers, and provision for such a graduate course.

3. The provision of greater and better facilities for apprentice teaching under supervision as a part of the training of secondary-school teachers.

4. Provision of greater and better facilities for prospective teachers in the methods of teaching each of the various subjects in the secondary school.

It is to be noted that the first three of these factors are to a great extent dependent upon State action. Until the present, the initiative in providing facilities for the training of secondary-school teachers in Massachusetts has been taken by the colleges without the active assistance or cooperation of the State. It is probable that the extension of those facilities must depend to a considerable degree on the action of State and local school authorities.

New Hampshire suggests the following steps as feasible and likely to lead to a higher grade of scholarship in the teaching force of its high schools:

1. Let our State college be so organized as to give each student preparing to teach in high school four years of intensive work in the single subject which he plans to make his specialty. He would have minor subjects, also, of course. There is no good reason why the young person who has finished high school, and who knows that he is to teach at all, should not be able to choose his specialty before entering college as well as on the day he applies for a job.

2. Encourage postgraduate work by special State aid to graduate teachers who attain the master's degree, after much the same plan as that of our present State aid for qualified teachers in the elementary schools, which has worked so well.

3. Let the State college aim to furnish the bulk of the new teachers needed to recruit the secondary-teaching staff.

#### SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION.

Supervision is necessary for the improvement of teachers, whatever their training or experience. It is especially needed where it is least given, in the small high schools that are taught by young men and women, many of whom would rapidly become professional and increasingly expert under the guidance of a supervisor of insight and sympathy. As a rule, the county superintendent on his infrequent visits to a school gives little attention to the high-school teachers, partly because he feels that their training must have fitted them for their tasks and partly because the aims and standards of secondary-school teaching are still indefinite. The State high-school inspector probably has a larger influence at his annual visit, chiefly because he comes with the prestige of his position and a perspective gained from seeing the work of hundreds of teachers who are attempting to give instruction on the same or similar subject matter. It would be well if the functions of inspection and of supervision could be separated, as in Arkansas. Data from the several States, much of it unpublished, give evidence that the State inspectors vary much in their helpfulness to teachers. In Maryland, where, since the school survey supervision has been emphasized, State Inspector North reports that he has visited classes, recorded data on well-devised blanks (see Md. State Rpt., 1917, pp. 168-169), held individual conferences with teachers on problems of instruction and with principals on problems of administration, suggested plans for working out desired school improvements, and in a large number of cases met the faculties after school hours, when questions of immediate moment to the particular school and of larger significance in the high-school field were discussed. The report continues:

The plain intent of the present school law, as regards high-school supervision, is that the supervisor shall devote himself primarily to supervision—that is, to the task of endeavoring to bring about a better quality of instruction, to improve the actual teaching in the classroom; and though this involves a number and variety of other duties, both in the field and in the office, the outstanding function of a supervisor, as distinguished from an inspector, is unquestionably that of helping to improve teaching by working with the teachers now in service. The supervisor, therefore, began the year's work with the plan of working immediately at the actual problems of the classroom; but less than one month's experience convinced him that the year would have to be devoted principally to procuring changes in the internal organization of the schools, and in securing the minimum equipment with which a good quality of teaching might reasonably be expected. The most conspicuous needs of the school as a whole were found to lie in these three directions: (1) More apparatus, textbooks,



materials of instruction, library equipment; (2) rearrangement and better adjustment of school programs to the State course of study; and (3) more and better teachers. Accordingly, this report will review, in a general way, under these three heads the principal points of the supervisor's findings and efforts.

A part of the discussion of apparatus, textbooks, materials of instructions, and library equipment is appended:

There were on the approved list for 1916-17, 72 high schools, 30 of the first group and 42 of the second. Of these, at least 7 of the first group (23 per cent), and at least 20 (47 per cent) of the second group were conspicuously short in these several particulars of the minimum laid down by the State board as requisite for placing a school on the approved list. Most of these schools had been on the list for several years, and many of them had drawn the State aid ever since 1910, when it was first granted; but they had never been furnished, nor would they, apparently, ever have been furnished with sufficient equipment to do genuine high-school work without the steady, insistent pressure and frequent regular inspection provided by the new law. Their shortages were of various kinds; some had no library and no apparatus of any sort; others had the unusable remains of an antiquated library and of an archaic laboratory outfit; and still others had, owing to annual changes of teachers, let their equipment, good at first, run down almost to nothing. These shortages mean that the classroom exercises in science were limited to mere textbook work, answering rote questions, the reciting of memorized portions of the texts; that there was no library reference or supplementary matter available; and that the instruction in the two social subjects, English and history, was simply dying on its feet, being confined entirely to one book—the text used; and the lack of maps and charts, either purchased or homemade, simply petrified the instruction in history and in Caesar.

But supervision is needed also in large high schools, either directly by the principal or by experienced assistants to whom he delegates this important function. This is recognized and strongly urged by Dr. Tildsley, of New York City, in his report for 1918:

What is most needed in our high schools, next to closer and more skillful supervision on the part of the principal himself, is more effective supervision by the first assistants who are chairmen of departments. There is a remarkable disparity in the effectiveness of such supervision at the present time on the part of the various first assistants in the different schools, and even between first assistants in the same school. It seems evident that, in the examinations in the past, scholarship has been given emphasis rather than qualities of leadership and administrative ability. It is to be hoped that in the coming examinations the board of examiners will emphasize personality, past achievement in our service, and proved qualities of leadership, rather than knowledge of the subject matter and even of methods. Scholarship and knowledge of methods, if not accompanied by courage, kindliness, and that intangible quality known as leadership, avail a head of a department but little. Contrary to general opinion, our high schools are suffering not from oversupervision, but from undersupervision. Some principals allow themselves to be confined to their inner offices, busied over details which could often be assigned to a subordinate, when they should be in the classroom inspiring the teachers and stimulating the pupils. Some of these principals, while thus giving too little of their time to actual classroom inspection, are not even supervising by proxy, since they have not succeeded in developing heads of departments who are the real leaders and not merely the nominal leaders of departments and who lead because of their grasp of the problems of their department, their initiative, encouragement, and judgment. Weak heads of departments for the most part must be charged against the principal of the school. If the board of exam-



iners has ever erred in placing unfit teachers on the first assistant's list, only in rare instances has pressure been exerted on the principal to take a first assistant not of his own choice. Furthermore, such first assistants have had a temporary tenure for three years, and during that period would have lost their licenses on unfavorable reports of the principals. Heads of departments grow if the principal encourages them or even allows them to grow. They degenerate if the principal gives them no authority and does not encourage the exercise of initiative on the part of his chairmen. A really strong principal will be found surrounded by strong, aggressive, and progressive chairmen of departments composed of enthusiastic, energetic, efficient teachers. Where such a condition does not exist, the responsibility lies with the principal who has stifled the growth of his teachers.

It is obvious that, if effective supervision is to be secured, a greater demand must be made as to training and professional fitness on the principal. State High-School Inspector Calloway, of Missouri, emphasizes this point in his report for 1916:

We need to evolve in this State a position of high-school principal. The city superintendent can not give sufficient time to the supervision of instruction in our high schools. The superintendent with the grade work and with official duties can not effectively do this work. It is clear to me that it must be provided for through the high-school principal. He must be given more time. His work must be organized in such a way that he can find time for work with high-school teachers. The high-school principal should be given more authority and his duties more clearly defined. His status is not at the present time such that his influence with his teachers is strong. He is not taken seriously by high-school teachers, and consequently refuses to take a hand in matters over which he does not have full authority. Both authority and dignity must be attached to this position before our best men will remain high-school principals. When we have created such a position in this State, the high-school principalship will not be a stepping stone to the superintendency. The superintendent now has more than he can do. Such a change will not, in any way, curtail the importance of the position of the superintendent.

Inspector Kingsley, of Massachusetts, also recommends a requirement of professional training:

Too often a principal is selected on the ground that he has a pleasing personality and has been unusually successful in teaching some one subject. These qualifications, while important, are far from adequate. He should be a student of educational problems. It is extremely desirable that he should have taken courses in high-school organization and administration in a college or university. This seems to be a reasonable requirement in view of the summer schools now offering such courses. Experience as principal of a smaller school affords excellent training for similar responsibilities in a larger school, while experience as a department head under a capable principal is of added value.

Not only must the principal be trained, but he must also be given time from his administrative duties to visit classes and confer with his teachers daily in an effort to improve their work. Every one who has studied the situation has found that actually few principals find the time to perform adequately the most important function of their office—the supervision and improvement of instruction. Mr. Calloway, by means of a questionnaire sent to principals of all first-

class high schools of Missouri, St. Louis and Kansas City excepted, found that they distributed their time as follows:

*Teaching periods of principals.*

Number of periods.	Number of principals.	Per cent of principals.
0.....	6	5
1.....	2	1
2.....	3	2
3.....	12	10
4.....	23	11
5.....	37	30
6.....	84	28
7.....	4	3

Median number of periods taught daily by principals, 5.

*Keeping study hall.*

Number of periods.	Number of principals.	Per cent of principals.
0.....	44	37
1.....	37	31
2.....	29	24
3.....	9	8
4.....	1	1

Median number of periods given daily by principals to keeping study hall, 1.

*Doing office work.*

Number of periods.	Number of principals.	Per cent of principals.
0.....	20	16
1.....	61	50
2.....	25	20
3.....	13	8
4.....	11	6

Median number of periods given daily to office work by principals, 1.

*Supervising.*

Number of periods.	Number of principals.	Per cent of principals.
0.....	82	70
Less than 1.....	8	6
1.....	14	12
2.....	10	8
3.....	6	5
4.....	1	1

Median number of period given daily to supervision by principals, 0.

A similar story is told in the reports from Virginia and Kentucky, and doubtless would be repeated in almost every State if the data were available. With the omission of 31 principals in Virginia and

of 110 in Kentucky who made no report, and of 20 in Kentucky who confessed that they gave "very little" time to supervision, the following tabulation was made:

*Amount of time given daily by high-school principals in Virginia and Kentucky to supervision,*

Periods.	Virginia.	Kentucky.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Give no periods.....	61	22
Give less than 1 period.....		9
Give 1 period.....	15	24
Give 2 periods.....	14	20
Give more than 1 period.....	20	35
Give more than 2 periods.....	7	14
Give more than 3 periods.....	2	8
Medians.....	0	1

The situation is bad enough if the figures are taken as recorded; it is worse if they are critically examined. Although there is no disposition to imply dishonesty on the part of principals making returns to the State office as to how they spend their time, it must be recognized that the tendency would be to report a larger number of periods given to professional and supervisory functions than actual daily practice would warrant; moreover, some principals may have misunderstood the instructions. In Kentucky, for example, 12 principals report that they spent from five to nine periods daily in supervision. One-half of these principals were in schools of fewer than 125 pupils, 43 per cent of them in schools of fewer than 50 pupils, and 25 per cent in schools of fewer than 25 pupils. Surely it would be worth while for the State inspector to make a study of the methods and results of such intensive supervision.

Inspector Calloway, of Missouri, makes the following comment on the returns from his questionnaire study, some of the data of which were presented above:

To make a frank statement, there is not in this State, with a very few exceptions, what may rightfully be called a high-school principal. Except as regards some minor duties, practically all of the so-called high-school principals are nothing more than high-school teachers. They are principals in name only. This is borne out not only by the amount of teaching done but also by the tenure of service. Forty-four per cent of the teachers are in their positions this year for the first time, while 43 per cent of the principals are in their positions for the first time. Of the 121 principals reporting, there are only 11 who do not teach as many as three periods, or half time; 6 report no teaching; 2 teach one period; and 5 teach two periods per day; 72 per cent teach four or more periods; 3 per cent teach five periods; and 28 per cent, or more than one-fourth, do a full day's teaching.

As study-hall keepers, 77, or 63 per cent of the 121, keep study hall one or more periods; 85 per cent of the principals give one or more hours per day to office work; 35 per cent give two hours or more; and 15 per cent give three or more hours per day to office duties.

When the question of the supervision of instruction in the high schools is taken up the high-school principal falls far short; 82 of the 121, or 70 per cent, give absolutely no time to high-school teaching besides their own classes. An additional 6 per cent give less than one hour to high-school supervision, and only 22 per cent give as much as one hour to high-school supervision. My observation is that this is perhaps an overstatement of what is really done.

Of the 121 high-school principals, 52, or 43 per cent, are in their positions this year for the first time; 21 per cent are in their positions for the second year; and 16 per cent are in their positions for the third year; 5 per cent have been in four years and 4 per cent for five years. Five high-school principals have been in their present positions more than 10 years.

The State over the high-school principal has no voice in the selection of his teachers; 97 of the 121 report no voice in the selection of high-school teachers, and those who report some voice in the selection show that this is usually only in an advisory way.

The great number of new teachers in our high schools each year as a single factor shows a great need for a supervising principal. The fact that 44 per cent of the teaching force in our high schools change each year is in itself an unquestioned demand for closer supervision. And the additional fact that 32 per cent of the total teaching force has never taught in the high schools before this year is but a further justification of this demand. It is impossible that teachers do satisfactory work under such conditions. Perhaps no other factor is so largely responsible for the shifting each year of high-school teachers as the lack of adequate supervision of instruction. Many teachers come into the high schools enthusiastic and with high ideals of what ought to be done. They are misunderstood by their pupils. Their work does not go as they have planned. They become discouraged, flounder around for a time, and then settle down to the line of least resistance.

#### EXTENSION OF FUNCTION OF HIGH SCHOOLS.

The growing critical attitude toward the high school, of which mention has already been made in this and in the report two years ago, finds expression occasionally in such a passage as the following from the superintendent at Williamsport, Pa.:

In many ways the high school is doing excellent work, for which both principal and teachers deserve full credit. There are, however, in my judgment, some weak points that ought to be strengthened. One weakness is in the organization of the high school. The general attitude of faculty and students seems to be that children are sent to the school to do a certain amount of work, and that the teachers are there for the purpose of testing the children to find out whether or not they have done their work and to grade them accordingly. Both parties seem to feel that when each has performed his work individual responsibility ends. It does not seem to be the prime motive of the high-school faculty as a whole to bring out the best that is in the pupil, but rather to permit the delinquent to eliminate himself from his class or school through repeated failures. The character of this kind of discipline is negative and repressive instead of positive and directive. Even in some colleges to-day there is a dean whose duty it is to get hold of the failing student early and help him, if possible. Throughout the high-school course there should be continuous growth in self-reliance, willing and cheerful obedience, and closer cooperation between the student body and faculty, and also like relations should exist between the principal and faculty.

Criticism must lead primarily to a clarification of the function of secondary education. Toward this end the appended statement of Commissioner Meredith, of New Jersey, will be an aid:



The high school should assist—

First, by leading the pupil to a conception of the variety and the significance of the work to be done in the world. This may be done, in part at least, through a study of vocations. Pupils may thus be led to see what fields of activity are open both to boys and to girls; what general and what specific personal qualities are necessary for progressive success, together with the special training required. A study of this character would reveal the probable demand for workers in a given field, and also indicate the remuneration to be had in terms of both money and personal and social advantages.

Second, by testing the pupil's capacities and interests over a wide field of subject matter and activities. The high-school period is a time of self-discovery and self-realization for the pupil, and the process of discovering latent interests and abilities is a function both of the teacher and of the pupil.

Third, the school may assist the pupil by giving him definite training in fundamental subjects and by providing for systematic physical education, which should include the inculcation of ideals and standards in this paramount phase of education.

Whatever may be the ideal, there can be little question after reading numerous reports from both city and State superintendents that the tendency of high-school education is strongly vocational. This tendency is likely to be strengthened by the Smith-Hughes law, which by its opportunities for financial aid seems to be influencing strongly the reformulation of curricula. Many schools, however, are finding difficulty in meeting the requirements of the law.

Self-criticism is also leading to a widening of the functions of the high school. The tendency to include in secondary education the seventh and eighth grades as a part of the junior high school is progressing quietly, especially in the largest cities; New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, St. Louis, and Boston having established the beginnings of such schools. The inclusion of two years upward as a junior college is generally approved, but for economic reasons the movement is making little progress. Springfield, Mass., and Kansas City, Mo., have recently established junior colleges. Extension work by high schools has been tried in one county in California, and the departments of teacher-training for the elementary grades is making substantial progress. Reports from the several States testify that the work is proving satisfactory. Evening high schools are of increasing importance, with enrollments encouragingly large; but everywhere the problem is to secure a high percentage of regular attendance. The reports testify that the effort is generally being made to present in these evening schools, as has been done in the schools conducted by the Young Men's Christian Association and other semipublic or private agencies, what the mature students want. Summer high schools likewise seem to be accepted as of growing importance as a regular part of the school system. It is interesting to note that a number of reports justify them by presenting data concerning not only the attendance but also the success of the pupils in earning credits and in maintaining their standing in the successive terms.

One development of high-school work that needs more extensive treatment than is possible in this report is in the growth and use of high-school libraries. From every section of the country have come reports not merely of increased appropriations for books but also of the employment of trained full-time librarians and of the introduction of systematic instruction in library work. Although it is strange that this development should have come so late in our secondary schools, it is no less gratifying that the movement is progressing so generally and with such vigor.

#### THE WAR AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The effect of the war on secondary schools has been manifest in the enrollment, in the subject-matter of instruction, and in the extra-curricular activities. Mention has already been made of the fact that many teachers and principals have been drawn from the schools by the demands of other service. The pupils also have felt these demands; some of the older ones entering the Army, and many others, especially in centers of industry, undertaking remunerative work. The superintendent of schools in Chelsea, Mass., for instance reports:

During the preceding year there was a large loss of pupils, largely due to the increasing demand for unskilled and inexperienced laborers. This condition was aggravated by the increasing cost of living and the fact that many of our pupils came from poor families in which the older children were called upon to help meet this higher cost of living by going out to work for wages. Undoubtedly the higher wages which were offered for this kind of labor tempted many pupils who had been gradually losing their interest in school to leave in order to go to work. Figures show that in the year 1915-16 nearly two-thirds of those who left school were freshmen.

In New Bedford, Mass., 23 per cent of the entire high-school enrollment withdrew during the year 1916-17, 62 per cent of the withdrawals going directly to work. In Providence, R. I., La Crosse, Wis., and Aurora, Ill., there were losses of from 4 to 7 per cent; and in the State of New Jersey the increase in high-school enrollment for 1916-17 was only 696 pupils, or 1.4 per cent. The large cities, like New York and Boston, have had smaller enrollments than the previous steady growth had led them to expect. But there has been no such emptying of the schools as many had expected; in fact, school reports for 1915-1917 far more frequently mention continued growth in high schools than any decrease in the number of pupils.

Another effect of the war, that in the spirit of the student-body, has been presented by the superintendent of La Crosse, Wis.:

While, in any circumstance, war is a most deplorable thing, in my judgment it has been a most wonderful factor in the development in the secondary school of the spirit of citizenship, honor, integrity, and loyalty. The various war activities which the schools have been doing during the year have been wonderful factors of education.

There is no other one influence which has so emphasized the responsibility of even the high-school boy or girl as a citizen, and demonstrated beyond the question of a doubt the fact that no individual can live in a community and be a part of the community without being responsible to the community, and that no person, even a high school boy or girl, can live in modern society as an individual entirely independent of the other individuals in the community.

From all quarters come similar reports: never before in the marvelous growth of secondary education have the pupils been so enthusiastic, so earnest, and so persistent in their work. This has in large measure been due to the fact that high-school teachers have incorporated fresh material and developed or emphasized it by the war situation in their instruction of history, civics, English, science, mathematics, and practically every other subject in the curriculum. It is difficult to see how those teachers after the success that they report in using meaningful, motivated material can return to the formal work that has characterized so much of high-school instruction. In this connection should be mentioned the careful elimination in various cities, notably in Cincinnati under Supt. Condon, of all material in high-school textbooks that seemed directly or indirectly to support autocratic government. Never before has there been such a widespread and determined effort to make secondary schools the means of inculcating the ideals of democracy.

From schoolmen and from the pupils themselves all over the country there has been a constant effort to learn how the schools can best help in the war. Partly to answer this implied question, the Government has, through the Commissioner of Education, issued a number of bulletins to the schools and to the public at large. Among these may be mentioned "Europe's Educational Message to America," "Secondary Schools and the War," "Suggestions for the Conduct of Educational Institutions during the War," "Work of American Colleges and Universities during the War," and "Government Policies Involving the Schools in War Time," the last one mentioned being signed by five members of the Cabinet whose departments are most concerned. The burden of all those messages has been that the high schools should continue their work and make it more vital for the welfare of the Nation in the years to come. The Commissioner of Education also published recommendations of a joint committee on the teaching of the sciences and of industrial work during the war, and, in cooperation with the Food Administration, issued a series of "Lessons in Community and National Life" for the purpose of inculcating the ideals of democracy and broader conceptions of national life.

All over the country the high schools that were equipped for the work gave instruction to the men in the selective draft under the direction of the National Board of Vocational Education. Classes were conducted in telegraphy, in motor mechanics, in the trades

connected with the construction of airplanes, and in other similar work which the men had been assigned, high-school pupils often assisting their teachers in the instruction. In the summer schools training was in many places given for the Women's Business Reserve Corps, the students being women who were preparing to take the places of men called to the Army. In Philadelphia these courses, under the direction of Dr. Lucy L. W. Wilson, included the elements of business, bookkeeping, stenography and typewriting, or stenotypy, filing, office practice, civics, current history, war-time housekeeping, drawing and draughting, telegraphy, and English expression, oral and written. The extra curricular work of high-school pupils during the year has included various kinds of assistance to officials' boards, such as the filling and filing of cards, the tabulation of questionnaire returns, the writing of letters and the addressing of envelopes, the making of posters, and other public signs; securing membership for the Red Cross, the Junior Red Cross, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus; the making of articles for these organizations; the collection of books for soldiers' libraries; the selling of thrift stamps and bonds; the adoption of orphans in the several devastated countries; aiding in the campaign for conservation of coal and food; gardening and farming. The story of the self-denials, the enthusiastic work, and the effective accomplishment of our boys and girls would make one of the most heroic chapters in the history of secondary education.

#### FARM SERVICE BY HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS.

Late in the spring of 1917 there were urgent calls for assistance on the farms by high-school boys, and in response arrangements were all over the country hurriedly made by which boys were excused from some school attendance in order that they might render service. In some cases they went on the farms as regular helpers; in others they did seasonal work as the crops of the neighborhood demanded. A number of schools organized their boys into groups who rented and cultivated a farm of their own. Usually school credit was given boys who worked for three months or so, providing their marks were passing; but of course there were different provisions among the many schools whose pupils went to this temporary work. In Philadelphia the board of education granted furloughs to boys over 16 whose class standing was satisfactory, the furloughs applying to May and June and September and October. In North Dakota the State board of education resolved on May 16, 1917, "that it is the patriotic duty of every school in our State to open not earlier than October 1, in order that as many boys as possible of suitable age can assist in harvesting the crops." This resolution was approved by the



State High School Conference. The board very wisely added to its resolution this memorandum:

This board believes that it is also the imperative duty of superintendents, principals, teachers, and boards of education to urge the attendance at school of all boys below conscriptive age, because the burden of responsibility which will rest upon the rising generation will inevitably be greatly increased by the facts of the war.

Although the appeal for boys was made late, there are reports from all parts of the country that the response was generous, and to the surprise of skeptics the city-bred boy on the whole furnished acceptable aid on the farm. Some of the camps made less money than they had expected, or even after a summer of hard work went into debt; but the balance was on the right side of the ledger; additional food was produced, a demand by boys nearing military age for opportunity to serve was satisfied, and there were numerous by-products of no inconsiderable value. Among these may be mentioned an increased appreciation by the public of the high-school boy, some understanding by the city boy of the farmer and his work, and the introduction of agriculture into several city high schools. Such courses are given in Paterson, N. J., Decatur, Ill., Kansas City, Mo., and Pittsburgh, Pa.

The experience of 1917 revealed possibilities for so great national service that in the several States committees were early appointed to formulate more complete and effective plans than the earlier emergency had made possible. Of all the reports none has proved more intelligent and helpful than that of the committee on mobilization of high-school boys for farm service, Frank V. Thompson, chairman. From this report extensive quotation is made.

On the basis of its experience in 1917 with 1,600 boys—500 in 16 camps and 1,100 on individual farms—the Massachusetts committee made valuable recommendations for the continuance of the work. The following, both direct and implied, are of general interest:

The committee is convinced that, given the three essentials of time—that is, early enrollment of boys and arrangements for employment with farmers, of proper supervision, and of cooperation with the local agricultural organizations—the work can be successfully carried on.

The committee undertook the development of a plan of placement on farms, as follows:

- (a) One or more boys on individual farms as requested by farmers, the boys to live in the farmers' homes.
- (b) Boys to work through local placement as needed on the farms in their vicinity, returning to their homes at night.
- (c) Organization of camps from which boys would go to work by the day or week on farms in the vicinity of the camp.

The season's experience has demonstrated to the committee that the provision made in the high schools of the State for placing boys on farms for day labor, or for longer periods, can and should be carried on under a plan similar to that worked out for this season; that is, through local placement and under local supervision.

The committee believes that a successful working out of the camp method of supplying labor requires substantial modifications of the 1917 plan. Among the modifications to which it wishes to direct attention are the following:

1. The necessity for immediately beginning a campaign to acquaint the farmers of Massachusetts with the results of camps established this year and the possibilities for next year.

2. The committee should assume the responsibility for and control of the supervision of camps.

3. The director should have control of the location, equipment, and commissary of each local camp, but should in every possible way seek to utilize existing community resources to the end of making the expenses as low as possible.

4. All of these matters mean expenditure of public money rather than private support by subscription. (An estimate for 50 camps in 1918 is made of \$50,000. In 1917 there was an expenditure of \$10,141.31, or \$6.33 for each boy.)

5. The administration of plans the committee proposes involves the following changes:

- (a) The appointment of a rather large and representative advisory committee.

- (b) A small executive committee, seven members, largely made up of men who have had experience in the work during the season of 1917, who shall be responsible to the public safety committee for the conduct of the work.

- (c) The appointment of a director of mobilization of school boys, responsible to the executive committee for carrying out policies, when adopted and ratified by the executive committee of the public safety committee.

- (d) The director to be employed at once to carry on the campaign of publicity, of securing cooperation, of making plans for enlistment, of placement; in short, all the work necessary to get an early start on the farm work for the season of 1918.

So far as the experiment in Massachusetts goes to-day the committee finds:

1. That the right type of boys under efficient supervision are valuable in food production.

2. That mutually advantageous working arrangements between boys and farmers can be brought about.

3. That the employment of the boys during the summer, being a seasonable occupation, can be done on a considerably larger scale with no disadvantage to the labor market.

4. That as rapidly as the men withdraw from productive industry for war service, as increased demands are made upon transportation facilities for forwarding troops, munitions, and supplies more and more will production of food be necessary as near as possible to the point where the food is to be consumed.

5. That so far as can be foreseen, farm labor shortage will be more acute in 1918 than it was in 1917.

The committee recommends that the camps be conducted on a semimilitary basis, that training courses be provided for camp cooks and supervisors, and that a uniform practice in conducting camps be worked out embodying the features proved by experience to be best.

The *Maine plan* would probably need modification in some details to be workable in any other State, but it is of great interest in the present emergency. The following is quoted from a circular issued by the officials of the junior volunteers of Maine:

#### GENERAL INFORMATION.

*Purpose.*—The purpose of this movement is to discover, enlist, and train boys and young men to supply the extra demand for farm labor made necessary through the increased acreage propaganda recommended by the State and Federal Governments to provide for the war emergencies.

*Enlistment.*—Boys between the ages of 16 and 20, of good moral character, who can pass the physical examination and furnish satisfactory recommendations, may qualify as volunteers.

Dates of enlistment are on and after June 1, to and including October 31, unless otherwise released by the governor, on recommendation of the director-general.

Application blanks may be secured of the principal of the local high school or academies. If not, write to headquarters. Enlistment for both boys and leaders will be on the same basis as that of the National Guard. The boys will be known as "Volunteers," and the leaders as "Commanders."

All desirable candidates whose applications have been duly filed at headquarters will receive orders to report at the mobilization camp for final examination and enlistment.

*Leadership.*—The boys will be sent out in squads to work in different sections, as opportunity may afford, under the direction of competent adult leaders, appointed by the director-general, who will have full charge of the boys until they are returned to the mobilization camp, unless otherwise relieved by the director-general. These leaders will be men of unquestioned Christian character and ability for leadership with boys, coupled with a practical knowledge of farm work.

*Mobilization.*—The camp will be mobilized June 1, at the Y. M. C. A. State Camp Farm, Winthrop Center. This can be reached from either Winthrop or Augusta by trolley.

Instruction and training in general farm work will be given at the camp by representatives of the University of Maine and other qualified leaders, before assignment to service is made.

The volunteers will be sent out in companies, under their commanding officer wherever and whenever needed.

*Furloughs.*—Brief furloughs will be granted to the volunteers in cases of emergency, by the governor, on recommendation of the director-general.

*Compensation.*—Opportunity for service.

Wages, \$1 per each secular day from date of enlistment.

Subsistence (board and lodging).

Uniforms (hat, blouse, breeches, leggings, shoes, overalls, and frock).

Medical attendance.

Transportation.

*School credits.*—Full school credits will be allowed volunteers on both the fall and spring terms when engaged in service. The leaders will also tutor the boys and as far as possible keep them up with their regular school work.

*Parents' approval.*—It will be necessary for each boy to secure the consent and approval of either his parents or guardian.

*General administration.*—All matters pertaining to misunderstandings, adjustments of labor difficulties, change of location or assignment, discipline, enlistment, furloughs, rank, discharge, or other general questions shall be referred to the director-general.

#### NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE PROPOSALS.

To send any children to farms without knowing the actual need for them or without regulation would be wasteful and a hindrance to the farmers, who do not want a horde of inexperienced laborers on their hands. Therefore:

1. Create and appoint a State committee of school officials to confer with the State agricultural department and organizations of farmers to find out whether there is a real need of school children on farms.

2. If the need exists, draft a set of regulations to meet the need and at the same time protect the children, such as these:

(a) Children 14 and over only to be permitted to work on farms for other than their parents, and excused from school for this purpose from June 1 to October 1.

(b) Children 14 and over only, to be permitted to work more than eight hours a day, or more than six days a week.

(c) Children thus excused must have special work permits, issued by the committee of school officials or persons authorized by them showing that the child has been examined by a physician and is physically fit for work, permits to be issued only for farms known by the committee to be suitable places for the children to work.

3. The State committee of school officials should be responsible for the supervision of children at work on farms to see that regulations are enforced. Transportation, feeding, and housing should all be supervised.

As to housing, it is advisable that children sent to farms to work should not be housed with the farmers.

It has been suggested that the Boy Scouts, for instance, can establish camps in a given farm district under Scout Masters. Local authorities will be glad to provide transportation from camps to farms, and the boys can work in gangs, in one field one day, in another the next, and return to camp after work. In this way both work and living conditions will be supervised, and farmers will not have the responsibility and cost of housing them.

Similar camps may be established under playground directors, probation or school officers.

But be sure you know where the children live and how.

England is already wishing she had not used her children so recklessly at the beginning of the war. Let America learn by England's experience.

The Massachusetts plan differed in details but not in spirit.

#### MILITARY TRAINING IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

In the enthusiasm subsequent to the entrance of this country into the war there were many who believed that military drill should be made compulsory for all boys in high schools. Indeed, before April, 1917, several private secondary schools had offered military training to their older students who hoped soon to enter officers' reserve camps. A few public high schools, notably those of Boston, had for some years given a form of military drill to its boys; and after the declaration of war many schools, especially those in cities, introduced military training; usually optional. Among the cities may be mentioned Dallas, El Paso, and Waco, Tex.; Aurora, Elgin, Moline, and Chicago, Ill.; Stamford, Conn.; Louisville, Ky.; Bangor, Me.; Baltimore, Md.; Springfield, Ohio; Johnstown, Pa.; Pueblo, Colo.; Kansas City, Mo.; Richmond, Va.; Providence, R. I.; and most of the schools of Arizona. In Wyoming an elaborate system was developed and approved by the legislature by the grant of financial aid; the legislature of Oregon provided for an elective course in military tactics and training in high schools to be directed and supervised by the governor; and the legislature of New York, without the approval of the State department of education, passed a law requiring military training of all the older youth. In Massachusetts and New Jersey more deliberate action was taken. Commissions composed of representatives of the schools, of business, of industry, and of the Army, were appointed to consider the problem. In both cases they disapproved military training in high schools.



The arguments for and against military training in high schools are summarized in the two following letters, which are quoted from the report of the State superintendent of public instruction of Minnesota for 1917:

FAVORABLE TO MILITARY TRAINING.

Some one has well said that one of the great defects of American life to-day is slouchiness—slouchiness of physique, slouchiness in the appearance of our towns and villages, slouchiness in the application of mind and body to the tasks of the day, slouchiness in discipline and responsiveness to orders in cooperative efforts of all kinds. Compulsory military training enforces on a boy promptness in obeying orders, and he must apply himself to a given task until it is satisfactorily finished. His mental and physical being must always be at the best. All of these phases are being introduced and emphasized when military training is taught. It must be introduced in a spirit of civic service, and the cadets must be taught that this is a part of their training for citizenship.

Our experience with military training for several years in the Rochester High School leads me to say that it is one of the very best courses that we have offered. The discipline of the school is very much better, the boys seeing the value of self-control and decent restraints. The cadets are interested in civic problems and their responsibilities. Citizens of Rochester will testify to the value of this training for their boys. I have yet to hear a complaint on the cadet organization in the Rochester High School from the parents of the boys taking this work.

The cost of this work is very slight, as we have asked the boys to buy their own suits and caps. This year the cost has advanced from \$15 to about \$23. The boys feel it keenly, and we have allowed them to take the drill and rifle practice without the regular cadet uniform. Lieut. W. F. Wright, of the local Machine Gun Co., is the drill master and receives a slight remuneration.

Drill is offered twice a week and rifle practice by squads once a week. During the winter season indoor drill and rifle practice are given, and during the spring, summer, and fall, outdoor practice. Interest in the organization is so keen that prominent citizens, who are members of the local rifle club, offered to take squads of cadets out to the rifle range. The rifle range is owned by the Machine Gun Co., the Rifle Club, and the cadet organization.

State-wide military training in high schools has been a decided success in the State of Wyoming, where legislative aid is granted. At first there was a great deal of opposition, but it now has the hearty approval of all the citizens of the State. The State superintendent of instruction has this to say: "I take this opportunity to express my hearty endorsement of the cadet work which is being done in Wyoming. For some time I have been watching the influence which it has exerted upon the young men enrolled in the various schools, and I wish to say that I consider it most valuable training for our high-school boys. I am glad to see the movement growing in popularity."

Finally, I wish to say that here is an organization in which the physical welfare of practically every high-school boy can be cared for. Football takes care of about 15 or 20, basketball about 10 or 15, baseball about 12 or 13; but in drill, setting up exercise, and rifle practice, every high-school boy may compete. Where the cadet movement has been tried, it is a success. Austin, Mankato, St. James, and Stillwater, in this State, are very successful in their experiments. Those who have tried the experiment can speak from experience, others can only guess, and those who oppose the movement are mostly guessers and mothers who did not raise their sons to be soldiers but want them to be mollycoddles.

114. H. A. Johnson, Rochester, Minn.

## THE OPPOSING VIEW.

The world is suffering from a hysteria of fear. Fear has entered the courts of Europe and shaped the policies of kings. The nations at war to-day had but to look across their boundaries any night for the last 30 years to behold a horrid, grinning monster, ready to leap at their throats. They talked about "perils," until at last an emperor had himself pictured riding in the night on a black world-catastrophe, with uplifted sword, defying the "Yellow Peril." In these later days this fear has reached America. Congress appropriates hundreds of millions to banish fear, but it is not enough. Our schools must be enlisted in the desperate fight to lay this ghost of fear. And now this State will be asked, as others have been already, to introduce military drill into the curriculum of its public schools.

The purpose of this training is that our youth may be enabled to repel the attack of a foreign foe. And it is accepted by all, militarists included, that the prime qualification for a soldier, the necessity before everything else for the man who fights, is a sound, strong body. The advocates of military drill affirm that their system furnishes the best training for developing strength and endurance. If this were true, military drill might be justified; for a strong body is as essential to the arts of peace as to the arts of war. And may I interject that the demands of peace during the next 10 years will be a severer test upon American manhood than any war to come? But the claim is not true. And I call to witness those who know.

First, Dr. Sargent, veteran director of physical training at Harvard: "Military drill is not an adequate means for physical training. It is not only very limited in its activities, but actually harmful in its effects upon boys less than 18 or 20 years of age. It is apt to foster a bombastic spirit of 'tin-soldierism' and a false sense of patriotism which does not appreciate the seriousness of war nor the glories of the struggles of peace."

Dr. Herman Koehler, of West Point, in his "Physical Training in the Service," says: "The attributes, in order of importance, may be summed up as follows: (a) General health and bodily vigor; (b) muscular strength and endurance; (c) self-reliance; and (d) smartness, activity, and precision. It is upon the first of these—health and bodily vigor—that the development of all the other qualities so essential in a soldier are dependent, and for that reason the maintenance of robust health and the development of organic vigor should be considered the primary object of this training."

Sir William Aitkin, professor of pathology in the Army Medical School of England, says: "Boys given military training at 18 make soldiers who are less robust and efficient than men with whom this training was deferred a few years, remaining in civil life until after their bones, heart, and lungs were more matured and developed."

PHILADELPHIA, May 8, 1916.

To the Joint Committee on Higher Schools.

GENTLEMEN: The subcommittee on military training begs to report as follows:

The extension and development of the present method of physical training is strongly advised, supplemented by practical instruction in hygiene, prevention of disease, and immediate treatment of wounds and injuries.

I quote from the report of special commission on military education and reserve appointed by the Governor of Massachusetts, in June, 1915, consisting of a lawyer, a publisher, two college presidents, one manufacturer, one representative of union labor, and three retired generals, two paragraphs:

"The overwhelming weight of opinion from school teachers, military experts, officers of the Regular Army and the militia, and the general public is against military drill as defined in the first clause above. It is generally agreed that the military drill which a boy receives in school is of little or no advantage to him from the point of view of practical soldiering. As far as available evidence goes, drill in the schools has had no beneficial effect in promoting enlistments in the militia, except in a few

isolated localities. For various reasons it has seemed to create a dislike for soldiering. Military drill in the schools is objected to by many on the ground that boys of school age have not attained sufficient mental maturity to appreciate what war and fighting mean, and are therefore unable to digest the ideas which military drill presents to them in concrete form. It is worth noting that military drill as such is given in the schools of no countries of the world except Australia and Japan.

"The commission does not recommend military drill, but is opposed to it."

The judgment of the men who know of committees and commissions and of nations is against military drill in public schools. France and Germany have both tried it, and have abandoned it for a more rational system of physical training. Any person who will inspect the physical training given by skilled experts in our public schools will find now all that is desirable in military drill, much more that is desirable added, and whatever is undesirable eliminated. He will see youths, both boys and girls, in large groups, executing complicated movements with precision worthy of trained soldiers. He will hear the sharp commands; he will see instant obedience to authority. He will be proud of these boys and girls, physically fit, ready to glorify their country in peace, and, if it must be, in honorable war.

The nature of the military training offered in our high schools has varied widely—from mere marching in formation to the study of tactics. Richmond, Va., has published its course of study in military training, which consists of five hours a week for each class. First year—drill, three hours; signaling and marksmanship, two hours. Second year—drill, three hours; company administration and organization and military hygiene, two hours. Third year—drill, three hours; map reading and field engineering, two hours. Fourth year—drill, three hours; tactics and leadership, two hours. This is a part of the Wyoming plan of military training, concerning which much has been published. The purposes of the military training, like its nature, have varied widely—from improvement in physical well-being to military preparedness and moral development. The last-mentioned purpose assumes a general transfer of training that has nowhere, especially in countries where such training of adults has been most firmly established, been proved or even largely claimed. The examination of the young men who entered the National Army has emphasized, as the schoolman has never been able to do, the need of serious and continued physical training of our boys and girls; and usually military drill in high schools has been justified as contributing to this end. The recent manuals on physical education issued by the States of New Jersey and New York are admirable outlines of work that should be enforced in all high schools.

#### THE FUTURE OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

It is generally recognized that the high school is in the critical stage of its development; no other phase of public education is so often discussed and so little understood. Having attained during

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the past generation a marvelous physical growth and a gratifying improvement in its internal administration, it remains now to be defined and directed purposefully and effectively toward ends consonant not only with elementary and higher education but also with the larger aims of national life. Before this can be satisfactorily done, the newer spirit of democracy and national ideals must be clearly formulated and accepted throughout the Nation as a basis for all national life. Then, to make opportunities equal for all the youth of our country, there must be extensive aid by the Federal Government to public high schools, which will thus be recognized as an effective instrument in training leaders in the upbuilding of national welfare. On the basis of definitely declared and accepted ideals of democracy, and with the aid of a Federal subsidy, professionally trained principals and teachers of the finest qualities must be secured to reform and redirect not merely the curricula and courses of study but also the social activities of the high schools. Then, and not till then, may we expect them to reach their highest efficiency as agencies in the development of the Nation.